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# Contemporary Psychology

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## Sensation and Perception Get Married

S. Howard Bartley

*Principles of Perception.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1958. Pp. xii + 482. \$6.50.

Reviewed by RICHARD H. HENNEMAN

*Dr. Henneman, whose PhD thesis on perceptual brightness constancy was accomplished under R. S. Woodworth at Columbia many years ago, worked on perceptual problems during the late war with J. P. Guilford and Frank A. Geldard, and is now at the University of Virginia as Professor of Psychology. He is the author of a great deal of research on perceptual and motor phenomena and was president of the Southern Society for Philosophy and Psychology in 1957-58. As his review shows, he is deeply concerned with the problems of good teaching.*

PROFESSOR BARTLEY of Michigan State University, well-known author of an earlier book on vision and of a textbook on experimental psychology, has now written the textbook for a course that the present reviewer has long had a desire to teach—a course which might bear the label, *sense perception*. Such a course would combine two areas of experimental psychology which are logically one, but which have traditionally been separated in their treatment, both in textbooks and in laboratory research.

These two areas are those of the sensory processes, including psychophysics, and the traditional area of 'perception' that covers such topics as the judgment of depth and distance, the localization of objects, the perception of movement, and the so-called perceptual constancies. Bartley's *Principles of Perception* attempts to embrace most of what has traditionally been treated in both of these areas. Eight of his 21 chapters deal with the usual sensory processes (visual, auditory, kinesthetic, vestibular, chemical, and cutaneous). Another seven are concerned with topics which have been conventionally treated under 'perception.'

Bartley denies the validity of the classical distinction between *sensation* and *perception* as do also Gibson and Allport in their recent books on perception. The essential unity and continuity of the processes which have been traditionally labeled 'sensory' and those termed 'perceptual,' he emphasizes throughout, insisting that so-called stimulus-bound discriminations do not obey a different set of laws from those governing the more symbolic and ab-



S. HOWARD BARTLEY  
He paints perceptions

stract behavior usually thought of as perceptual. This one-process idea is illustrated in the interesting and suggestive chapter on the interrelation of the various sense modalities, in which attention is called to the cooperative contribution of the organism's ten senses in determining its interaction with the physical environment.

And yet, after reading Professor Bartley's book, this reviewer still retained his earlier doubts as to the feasibility of accomplishing this unified treatment of 'sensory' and 'perceptual' phenomena, pedagogically or experimentally. The age-old controversy as to whether sensation and perception are distinct psychological processes, or merely represent different emphases of a single class of behavior is not easily resolved. There are numerous criteria by which the two

have been distinguished in the past. The question seems to have been oversimplified in the introductory discussion where Bartley rejects the idea of separate processes. This judgment may indeed represent a deep-seated bias on the part of the reviewer, for he felt dissatisfied with the same conclusion in the same controversy as drawn by Gibson and Allport. These latter authors, however, after denying the distinction between sensory and perceptual, proceeded to devote their respective books almost exclusively to 'perceptual' topics, whereas Bartley's book integrates sensory and perceptual phenomena within a unified presentation. One may well wonder how many psychologists will follow Professor Bartley's contention and abandon the classical dichotomy. The ultimate evaluation of this book may well rest upon this outcome.

ASIDE from the theoretical question of the validity of the distinguishing criteria separating sensory from perceptual processes, there is another serious and practical difficulty in the way of a composite treatment of *sense perception*, whether in a textbook or in a course of instruction. This springs from the great number of concepts, principles, theories, and methods of investigation that needs to be included. Limitations of time and space inevitably impose a restriction of coverage, a sketchiness of treatment, or both. *Principles of Perception* does not entirely escape this difficulty. The treatment of sensory psychology is not as thorough or as systematic as can be found elsewhere. The coverage of certain of the topics and theories in the traditional area of perception is not as detailed or as complete as some which have been provided in books more restricted in scope (Gibson, Vernon, and Allport). These deficiencies are probably inescapable in a presentation limited to a single volume, containing only 459 pages, especially when chapters are included on such topics as social perception, anomalies of perception, and perception in everyday life.

Related though less serious difficulties concern the time to be devoted to the course utilizing Bartley as a text, and the level of psychological sophistication

of the students for whom this book is intended. The large number of topics, unless several are omitted, will require a generous allotment of time. This textbook is intended for 'beginning students,' yet a sound background in psychology would seem to be necessary for an adequate understanding of the theoretical discussion in the early chapters. On the other hand, the generally unsophisticated style and necessarily sketchy treatment of some topics render this text unsuited to a graduate course.

BARTLEY freely admits and even emphasizes the difficulty of arriving at a satisfactory definition of perception. In his concluding chapter he writes: "Nowhere in the literature can we find in concise and adequate form a well-rounded account of what perception is, what its characteristics are, and/or how it relates to other aspects of behavior" (p. 449). He devotes the second chapter of his book to providing "a working definition of perception" and to distinguishing perceptual processes from other kinds of behavior.

Perception is the over-all activity of the organism that immediately follows or accompanies energistic impingements upon the sense organs. The sensory apparatus mediates between the more internal ongoing activities of the organism and the events outside it. Mediation is a forerunner of utilization. Taken together, these consist in (1) the detection of impinging external energies, be they mechanical, chemical, photic, thermal, or otherwise; (2) transforming the quantitative relations of these energies into a set of quantity relations expressive of the organism (groupings of nerve impulses); and (3) relating the specific impingement patterns to 'traces' of previous ones in terms of a code or system peculiar to the organism as a species and the particular organism receiving the impingement. The organism is not a simple mirror of externality, but rather a builder of a world of its own out of the nonexperienceable reality that the physicist calls energy (p. 22).

There are two basic criteria of perceptual behavior: (1) *immediacy* (i.e., behavior following very closely upon the impingement of the stimulus conditions), and (2) *discrimination* (involving a choice reaction in which contextual

conditions play a deciding role). The criterion of immediacy is appealed to in distinguishing *perception* from such processes as *thinking*, *judgment*, and *memory*. In the mind of the present reviewer, the least valid of these distinctions is that between perception and judgment. One questions whether judgments, especially simple judgments, are always to be regarded as integrations of preceding perceptions and concepts, as Bartley contends. Are there no such things as 'perceptual judgments'?

The perceptual process, as Bartley sketches it, is broad enough to include both conscious experience and overt behavior where both are immediate reactions to a present set of conditions. Even reflexes are to him logically a form of perceptual response when they can be shown to be both immediate responses and also discriminatory responses, as they often are. As the foregoing quotation shows, Bartley insists that perception is to be distinguished from the world that the physicist describes (the energistic world).

Perception does not copy anything. Perceived objects are not existent entities in the outside world that have the visual, tactual, thermal, and solidity characteristics which we experience in them. Hence, in studying perception, we are studying what it is that the organism experiences; not what the physical world contains, or is made up of (p. 22).

BARTLEY is unwilling to follow some of the modern learning theorists in reducing perception to discrimination learning. Rather than stressing the organism's *learning to perceive*, he prefers to emphasize the perceptual process as basic to learning, and the mutual interdependence of learning and perception. One or two brief quotations will illustrate his thinking.

To learn, the organism must be *sensitive* to the various conditions involved in the situation in question. The more factors in the situation which the individual is sensitive to, the greater the kinds of learning there can be. Encounters with situations help the organism to discover what it is in nature that goes together to make up constellations to which it can react. Repeated encounters with a given constellation or configuration of items leave their mark on



the organism. They manipulate expectancies (p. 45).

A final quotation sums up rather nicely Bartley's ideas relating perception and learning.

Perception, as well as thinking, etc., consists in developing a signal value for every encounter. The organism builds a 'language' out of its encounters with the external world. The significant thing is that at any and all moments the language which the organism possesses is as important for us to know as the physical description of the stimuli (the energies that are utilized as signals). The study of perception has been meant to be the study of the language of immediate response. To account for this language, the laws governing the building of the language must be discovered. This is the rightful study of learning for the psychologist. He must study the laws of change. The perceptionist's study is the determination of the laws governing the organism's immediate response (p. 44).

It is a novel and interesting attempt that Bartley has made to consolidate within a single treatise the important concepts and principles of the over-all process of sense-perception. In addition to his coverage of sensory psychology, he has managed to include a wider variety of topics in the area of traditional perception than have other authors who have largely limited their treatment to visual perception. This reviewer was gratified to find *Principles of Perception* not overburdened with accounts of speculative neurophysiological mechanisms supposed to underlie the various perceptual phenomena. In this book the student is made acquainted with far-reaching extensions and applications of the principles of perception to practically every aspect of human behavior. The author's survey of this broad area is eclectic, shaped perhaps by his own particular enthusiasms, but largely free from systematic bias (a characteristic of his book which some readers will undoubtedly regard unfavorably). Major concern over Bartley's undertaking relates to whether or not the attempt was too ambitious. Are there too many topics treated too sketchily, and are too many others omitted? Inevitably there will be disagreement with the author's

choice of topics and his relative emphases. Some readers surely will be unhappy with the definition of perception and its indicated relation to other modes of behavior. A final and persistent question in the mind of this reviewer is just how 'teachable' Bartley's *Perception* will prove to be.

## Personality Without Pathology

Solomon Diamond

### *Personality and Temperament.*

New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957. Pp. vii + 463. \$6.00.

Reviewed by LEONA E. TYLER

who is Professor of Psychology at the University of Oregon and a Diplomate in Counseling Psychology. She is, among other things, known for her *The Psychology of Human Differences* (Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1947, 1956; CP, Oct. 1956, 1, 302). She has reviewed Aptekar's *The Dynamics of Casework and Counseling* (CP, Apr. 1957, 2, 92) and Meyer's *Emotion and Meaning in Music* (CP, Aug. 1957, 2, 218-220). She is interested in music, the novel, the play, people, counseling, casework—after all they are not unrelated.

READING Diamond's book about personality is like entering a familiar room by a different door. All of the things one expects to find are there, but in the unaccustomed light new aspects of them stand out, and new relationships among them become apparent.

The first distinctive quality—the emphasis on individual differences in healthy, well-functioning persons—would perhaps be expected from the author, in view of his position and background. He is now a professor at Los Angeles State College. He has had a considerable amount of counseling experience, and his professional affiliations are with counseling and social psychology rather than with clinical psychology and psychiatry. His published research in the

general area of motivation ranges from rat studies to projective techniques.

The second distinctive quality is an emphasis on heredity as a source of basic differences in temperament. The book begins with a survey of the studies of rats, cats, dogs, and chimpanzees. Quite consistently they point to four fundamental dimensions of temperament—affiliative, fearful, aggressive, and impulsive. Diamond holds that each human being starts out with his own characteristic predispositions toward these four types of response. Experience can modify the pattern but cannot wipe it out. A good deal of research evidence that is often slighted in books on personality, such as Sheldon's extensive work, is brought in to support this idea. Diamond skillfully circumvents an obstacle that sometimes trips up personality theorists when they use temperament as a fundamental concept. This stumbling block consists in the fact that if we define temperament as an emotional characteristic, our inability to agree on what we mean by emotion makes our definition inconclusive. What he does is to define temperament as "ease of arousal of innate patterns of response." The concept of temperament is thus brought into alignment with the extensive work of the ethologists like Lorenz and Tinbergen.

The third distinctive quality is an emphasis on what the author labels *non-primary* drives. By this he means tendencies to respond to stimulation of the sense organs—activity for activity's sake. He believes strongly that tension-reduction is not the only basic kind of motivation. Our fundamental quest is not just for quiescence. The important thing this assumption does for the rest of the book is to furnish a solid base for later discussions of interests, creativity, and manipulation of symbols. For organisms constructed as human beings are, these are natural activities. One need not try to explain them in terms of something else, as some personality theorists do.

The best thing about the book as a whole is its combination of breadth with cohesiveness of organization. It includes most of the insights about personality that have come to us from theories centered around development, learning, self concepts, anxiety and defense, cognitive

styles, and mathematical models. (Incidentally, Chapter 8 presents an amazingly simple exposition of what factor analysis is all about, complete with freshman-level computations.) In Diamond's hospitable structure there is room for Sheldon and for Freud, for Cattell and for Rogers. The interaction between all these theorists is more like an evening of chamber music than it is like a cocktail party. Each brings his own instrument and comes in at the proper time. There are no clashes, no arguments.

Almost all of the evidence the author cites is experimental rather than clinical. The reader encounters no case studies and few unsupported theoretical statements. Each successive chapter builds on the preceding ones and uses research findings to cement the successive sections together.

The way the research evidence is used is perhaps the least satisfactory feature of the book. One cannot handle large amounts of material in this way and still be sufficiently critical. The author's tendency is to use what fits into his total structure and ignore what does not. Thus he cites Ribble and Spitz and does not mention Pinneau's searching criticism of their conclusions. He brings in Garrett's study in support of the conclusion that abilities become more differentiated with maturation and pays no attention to several later studies that show the differentiation to rest on factors other than age. Examples could be multiplied.

It would be ungrateful, however, to quibble over such details. It is the broad picture that Diamond is trying to sketch. Any one of the inaccuracies in detail that might be pointed out would not change it appreciably. If the reader finds the sketch itself convincing and attractive, he can do his own correcting and filling in.

The book makes enjoyable reading. The style is lucid and lively. The author takes it for granted that his readers will be interested in what artists as well as psychologists think about these things. Goethe is quoted along with Freud, Van Eyck along with Hanfmann. One puts the book down with the feeling that reading it has brought both pleasure and profit.

## For the Great, Homage and Rewards

### Various

*Autour de l'oeuvre de Dr. E. de Greeff.* Vol. I: *L'homme criminel: études d'aujourd'hui.* Vol. II: *L'homme devant l'humain: études de psychologie et de psychopathologie.* Louvain: Editions Nauwelaerts, 1956. Pp. xxviii + 256; iv + 212. 270 fr.b.

Reviewed by RICHARD A. LITTMAN

*For the past ten years Dr. Littman has been a professor of psychology at the University of Oregon. His special interests are the psychology of learning and of personality and also systematic psychology, and he has other interests in the organizational structure of professional psychology and in the motivation that gets psychological research done. When CP asked him to review these de Greeff 'homage volumes,' he asked to be allowed to write about this kind of publication in general, and CP, wishing to know more about such volumes, said Yes. Dr. Littman reports fact and also his own opinions. CP suggests that some readers may wish to comment on his article in letters to ON THE OTHER HAND.*

THIS writer received for review two volumes of essays and talks dedicated to the Belgian scholar, Dr. E. DeGreeff (4; see also 7, pp. 62-63). Books of this sort have an honorable history and even special names; librarians call them *homage volumes*, while in academic circles they are known as *Festschriften*. They are usually arranged as a surprise testimonial to a scholar by his colleagues and students. Ordinarily such volumes are not reviewable because their contents are so miscellaneous; the number of contributions is apt to be large (thirty-three in this case), many of the essays are reminiscent and personal, the literary style is often discursive, and the scholarly papers are usually unrelated.

The present volumes are no excep-

tion. In reading them, however, I was struck by the following passage, which appears in the introductory essay by Jacques Leclercq: "Socrate cherchait un homme. . . . Lorsqu'on en a trouvé un, c'est une grande joie, non seulement au royaume de la terre, mais au royaume des cieux. J'imagine les anges se penchant aux balcons du paradis pour contempler cet être rare qui est la gloire de la création." Thus I began to think about such books in general. What kind of thing is the homage volume that it can produce such an extravagant encomium? Is it like those ceremonies where the retired engineer is given a golden watch for his twenty-five years of faithful service to the railroad? Is it like the stripes that policemen and trolley-car conductors get for each five years of service? What follows, therefore, in this comment is the result of some little research and thought—about *Festschriften* mostly, but also about the general matter of paying homage in professional circles.

There are at least nine ways to show esteem and, perhaps, affection for a colleague. (1) "Essays in honor of": the classical form of the *Festschrift*; (2) *collected works or special reprintings of out-of-date works*: I exclude published papers initiated by an author himself, what we might call *autopresentation*; (3) *published biographies, extended necrologies* (in contrast with death notices), *solicited autobiographies, and reminiscences* ("as I remember him"); (4) *election to political office*, in a professional society, of course, and usu-

ally excluding primarily administrative positions like executive secretary or treasurer; (5) *election to special societies*, like the National Academy of Sciences, the Royal Academy, the Society of Experimental Psychologists; (6) *prizes*, like the Nobel Prize, the Gallatin Award (that Jonas Salk was given), the H. C. Warren Medal, excluding fellowships awarded to carry out research or study projects and similar grants-in-aid; (7) *lectureships*, like the William James Lectures, the Turner Lectures, the Silliman Lectures, a Sigma Xi National Lecture, prizes imposing the obligation of an address like the Kurt Lewin Memorial Award; (8) *special chairs*, like Chicago's Charles F. Grey Distinguished Service Professor, Yale's Sterling Professors, Harvard's Edgar Pierce Professors; (9) *symbolic presentations and memorials*, like the gavels in the ceremonies at the 1957 meeting of the American Psychological Association, scrolls, etc.

While this paper is primarily about the *Festschrift* and the circumstances that prevent or bring about its publication, much of what is said will apply to the second item above, *collected works* or *special reprintings*. The other kinds of rewards must be left for treatment elsewhere—if such treatment is needed. *Festschrift* contributions stress either the ceremonial or scholarly features of the occasion. Occasionally a volume may be all of one type; in that case, if it contains only ceremonial material it is probably a printing of what was said at a banquet or similar exercise, but more commonly it contains only scholarly essays.

LIKE many rituals in society, a homage volume is 'age-graded.' Usually, it appears just before or after a person has retired. Sometimes, however, there will be a *Festschrift* when a person is far from retirement—De Greeff, for example, is only 59, and these volumes were arranged to celebrate the twenty-fifth year of his professorship. In other cases, the honor may occur long after the recipient has retired. There is, for example, a wonderful old and presumably rare German tradition in which the members of an Akademie write a

*Glückwunschsreiben* to an academician when he reaches his eightieth birthday. Posthumous tributes are excluded as homage volumes unless they were already in process when the celebrity died, e.g., E. Sapir's (10).

The ceremonial contributions usually consist of biographical (or even autobiographical) material, a bibliography, and some personalized 'appreciations.' The scholarly contributions are mainly of two sorts, *offerings* and *critiques*. Offerings consist of a paper dealing with the contributor's special field of competence; he may discuss some general matters, report a particular set of findings or, in rare cases, announce a significant discovery or theory. The critique deals directly with the work of the person being honored, analyzing some aspect of his work, showing how his ideas are related to those of others, or even revising or extending his ideas. The volumes in the *Library of Living Philosophers*, edited by P. Schilpp (e.g., 8), are an excellent illustration of critiques, though the large number of negatively critical contributions in them are not typical of the *Festschrift*.

It would be useful to know how many *Festschriften* have appeared. I am informed by professional librarians, however, that several attempts to establish definitive registers have been given up. The variety of titles and different forms of publication have defied cataloguers. Nevertheless there have been some studies. Rounds and Dow (9), for example, have analyzed *Festschriften* for several fields from the middle of the nineteenth century. They have a listing of 2,452 titles from the following fields: economic history (519), New Testament and early church history (approximately 600), medieval studies (498), modern French literature (309), and classical studies (526). An interesting feature of this study is the geographical breakdown for classical studies. Germany is way out ahead with 204 items (separates and parts of serials), France is next with 40, then the United States (38), Italy (32), Great Britain (23), Switzerland (19), The Netherlands (12), and, finally, ten other countries.

I have been unable to obtain the figures about the number of persons engaged in each of these varied fields that

are needed to compute rates. For comparative purposes, however, I offer the following. In the United States there have been eight psychologists who have been honored with homage volumes: Cattell (3), G. S. Hall (5), Seashore (11), Terman (12), Thorndike (13), Titchener (14), Washburn (16), and Witmer (17). This is about one-fourth the number dedicated to classical scholars, and it is surely unlikely that there have been four times as many classicists as psychologists in the period covered. Even if one included the *collected works* of psychologists—I find only Tolman (15) and Woodworth (18) who have been so honored—the picture would not be appreciably changed.

ON such evidence, it seems fair to conclude that American psychologists have not been disposed toward using literary devices to express esteem for their colleagues. Since the data of Rounds and Dow do not suggest that this 'failing' is especially an American characteristic (though they do show that the *Festschrift* is a favorite German technique), we are forced to consider the reasons for this discrepancy.

A number of factors, by no means unique to psychology, suggest themselves. For one thing, psychologists have stringent standards about the *kinds* of things which are publishable. Retirement banquets for psychologists are fairly common, but they are rarely professional in character and tend to be restricted to friends and colleagues who have worked with the honored one at his institution. What goes on is so highly personalized that it can scarcely satisfy the American psychologist's idea of what should be printed to dignify his name (remember Leclercq's eulogy *supra*).

Then again, from the point of view of the publisher, there is no profit in issuing these volumes. The cost of publishing is high and publishers are neither under the control of scholars nor particularly obligated to them (as they may once have been). Hence what will not sell will not be published as a venture, and the large personal subscriptions needed to pay the publisher of a *Festschrift* require powerful motives.

The great frequency of homage volumes in Germany suggests that something about the way universities are organized may be at work. One notes the large number of dozenten and lecturers waiting around for the possessor of a chair to retire or die. Who is to be selected? Will someone from outside be brought in? Can anyone really resist encouraging some personal expression when the whole setting is one of acolytes and deacons? In sharp contrast, the American university, with its increasingly secular and nonacademic principles of management (2), tends to minimize such motives. The steady increase in the number of top positions combined with an orderly progression through ranks must surely reduce subservience, as would, of course, the mobility provided by the large number of colleges and universities that America has produced.

If one grants that only Germany has strong positive forces toward using the *Festschrift* and that the United States, along with France, Italy, and Great Britain, is less disposed toward this kind of tribute, does that mean that all recognition is attenuated? A glance at the organization of modern professions suggests that it is not. Other devices have been substituted for the personalized homage volume—offices in professional societies, honorary societies and academies, lectureships, and prizes. And, as the number of such organizations increases, as the various philanthropic contributions for special prizes and honors increase, should not the highly personalized method of the *Festschrift* become less necessary? That this matter of honor in relation to office is a real consideration is brought home in the recent proposal of the Policy and Planning Board of the American Psychological Association that the office of President be restored to its former position of honor by removing demands for administration that are more appropriate for business executives than for scholars.

THE personality of the behavioral scientist may be another factor. While it is true that in the United States there are fewer homage volumes than in Ger-

many, it does not follow that they occur with equal frequency in all areas of learning. I inquired in other fields as to the status of their *Festschriften*. In history, political science, literary studies, and philosophy it is evident that it is not at all un-American, but for the behavioral sciences (psychology, sociology, and anthropology) the picture is otherwise. Here the number of volumes is markedly smaller. While anthropology has the largest number, with such names as Boas (1), Kroeber (6), and Sapir (10), it is evident that homage volumes are not popular in these three disciplines.

Probably the behavioral scientist is more sensitive to the motives that prompt homage volumes. He regards it as a dubious virtue to mark certain persons off from others in this personal way. He is also more inclined, I believe, to insist upon the personal equality of his colleagues. Thus, more aware of the psychological mechanisms at work in judgment and preference, the behavioral scientist is forced to be more impersonal than his colleagues from other disciplines. (Nevertheless, on this score, I have some doubts. I, for one, am suspicious of the motives of persons incapable of sentimentality.)

NOR can one consider this matter without raising the question of whether the behavioral sciences have any great men to honor. Who is there to set beside Darwin, Freud, Einstein, Maxwell, and Gibbs, or, for that matter, beside Oppenheimer, Fermi, Shapley, Pauling, Sherrington, and Adrian? To understand the significance of the *Festschrift*, however, it is important to see that it is not necessarily designed for 'great men.' To put it another way, there are two kinds of great men. One is selected by history. Would Newton's or Galileo's contemporaries be any more surprised at their standing today than we will be to see the survivors of three hundred years of psychological history? There is, however, another kind of greatness, that of the persons who determine the character and the mold of much of the thought going on about them. To avoid injustice to living persons, let me name only Wundt, Titchener, Wertheimer,

Hull, McDougall. (Dare I add Watson who has so long been gone from the academic and professional scene?) Perhaps these men are not great in the same sense that Newton was. Let history decide that. But they were significant persons, and homage volumes are for significant people. The *Festschrift*, after all, is not the ultimate encomium. It honors those living whom we wish to honor. That is all.

With all these negative factors at work, how do we explain the continued existence of the *Festschrift*? Among a number of possibilities that come to mind, two stand out. In the natural sciences like psychology, biology, physics, and chemistry, a man's work has its impact in a clear-cut way. He demonstrates something that is significant, discovers something, or he provides an analysis which is immediately put to work. In any case, the object of his attention, *nature*, is immediately exposed to his work, and, in turn, his work is exposed to the test of nature. Because his fruits are readily tested for quality and breeding power, there is a universal criterion of accomplishment. In the historical and literary studies the test of nature is scarcely available as a criterion of accomplishment. What other people are moved to *do* is the main criterion that exists for such a scholar. The changes his work has made in the understanding of man or society are not obvious. Thus, if colleagues wish to indicate how important a scholar's insights have been for them, they must tell him so. The natural scientist is more like the politician or statesman who may know immediately when he fails.

A variety of impersonal considerations in understanding *Festschriften* have been considered. I am persuaded, however, that some other fairly homely impulses are at work. There are persons whose achievements are scarcely revolutionary or even highly significant who have nevertheless been honored. They have been, I believe, individuals who have been highly important to others in a personal way, shaping their lives by being generous, helpful or encouraging; or—and here is a most desirable reason—because they are 'good' persons, with all the vague richness that such an ex-



pression conveys. It is invidious to mention the living, though we all know instances; but what about James, whose many friendly gestures enhanced the effect of his equally friendly prose? What about Titchener who brought his wisdom to bear upon the intimate details of his disciples' lives? James R. Angell had no *Festschrift*, but he might have had one for this very reason. That there have been such persons makes it paradoxical to find so few public expressions. I wish there were more.

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# Vocational Development: A Dozen Propositions

Donald E. Super and Paul B. Bachrach

*Scientific Careers and Vocational Development Theory: A Review, A Critique and Some Recommendations*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, 1957. Pp. xii + 135. \$1.00.

Reviewed by WILBUR L. LAYTON

Dr. Layton, whose interest in testing and the theory of measurement and counseling began at The Ohio State University, has for the past ten years been attached to the University of Minnesota and is at present Professor of Psychology and Assistant Director of Minnesota's Student Counseling Bureau. He administers the testing programs for the State of Minnesota and, for the University and is greatly interested in the theory of mental testing and counseling.

DONALD E. SUPER has now produced twelve propositions which he feels are important in a theory of vocational development.

In 1956 the National Science Founda-

tion asked Super to attempt a project dealing with the identification of scientific capabilities and motivation in the selection of scientific careers. The project was to include a critical evaluation of available information and recommendations for needed research, with emphasis on science, mathematics, and engineering. Super broadened the plan so as to place the choice of scientific careers in a theoretical framework, to emphasize the development of choice of scientific careers, and to view the choice of this kind of occupation against the background of theory and research in vocational development.

The project proceeded in three stages: (1) a review and synthesis of published theory and research, (2) a meeting of

an advisory panel, which focused its discussion on the review, and (3) a report integrating the review with related work of the panel and staff. The literature reviewed covered material published through the summer of 1956. Two documents other than the review document were used as background material by the panel: the *Career Pattern Study Monograph on Vocational Development* (1957) and the *Report of the Social Science Research Council Summer Seminar on Occupational Choice* (1956). The panel consisted of 15 people, including one natural scientist, one economist, one mathematician, and twelve psychologists. These 15 people discussed and worked in three major areas of theory in relation to vocational choice and process: trait and factor theory, social systems theory, and personality theory, with the latter subdivided into psychoanalytic, cultural psychodynamic, and self concept and identity. From his theoretical orientation each panel member presented his analysis of the current status of knowledge about scientific careers. Then the panel subgroups attempted to integrate their various points of view, so that finally there came into being summaries produced in each of the three major areas.

Super and Bachrach have related these summaries to Super's theorizing about vocational development. In this final synthesis, the two authors use twelve propositions, some of which were first published by Super in the *American Psychologist* (1953, 8, 185-190), changed slightly in his *Psychology of Careers* and restated in his *Vocational Development*. One of these propositions is new. The panel activity and recent writing—of Darley and Hagenah, Tyler, and Spencer—generated this twelfth proposition. It is: "Work and occupation provide a focus for personality organization for most men and many women, although for some persons this focus is peripheral, incidental, or even non-existent, and other foci, such as social activities and the home, are central." This proposition will be accepted by some people as counteracting a tendency of Super to undervalue the important influence work has on the lives of many people.

Questions which this reviewer has

often asked himself but has not as yet answered satisfactorily are: How much exploratory work is necessary before theorizing can begin? At what stage does empirical detail overwhelm us and force us to develop a theory? How does one integrate the many variables studied in research and describe interactions of these variables? As Super and Bachrach point out, there is a wealth of data in the trait and factor area. Nevertheless, as one begins to organize it as they do, he quickly discovers gaps in research. Presumably a theoretical framework earlier would have helped one to fill in these gaps, and Super and Bachrach have outlined sketchily research that would fill a large number of these gaps. The authors point out we need many more studies in the social and personality areas and more studies of employed scientists, mathematicians, and engineers. Most of the available studies have been conducted on students rather than on employed scientists, and there have been very few studies of mathematicians. As Super and Bachrach indicate, we need to study specific scientific subgroups, not all scientists in a large heterogeneity.

Super and Bachrach's chapter, entitled *What We Know*, is an excellent attempt to synthesize research findings, but it is in final analysis essentially the trait approach. The engineer, scientist, and mathematician do not appear in the synthesis as real people operating within a social context. As Super well knows, research gains meaning only within a theoretical framework. The attempt at synthesis is not, however, as meaningful as it might be, because Super's theoretical propositions are highly dimensional. His theorizing does not yet adequately take into account interaction of the several variables considered, nor does he clearly differentiate which are dependent and which are independent variables. The authors could have made an extremely valuable contribution by hypothesizing at a level of theoretical complexity higher than that of the twelve propositions.

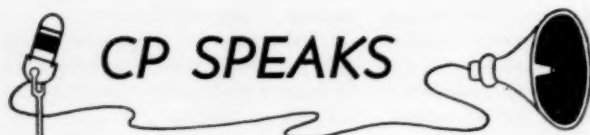
**S**UPER AND BACHRACH concentrate their discussion on the determinants of vocational choice. They stress research

on the choice process rather than on success in the occupation, placing emphasis on the longitudinal development of traits. They relate trait development to development of choice, largely to the exclusion of its relationship to final occupational placement and success. They feel that research on choice will better help this country meet its need for specialized manpower. Freedom of choice by the individual is more or less guaranteed by our democratic society. Concentrating upon choice may help society to avoid the conscription of individuals into specific occupations in an attempt to meet its needs for specialized manpower. Thus research on vocational choice can be of great importance.

**O**N the other hand, more research information about factors determining success in an occupation has great utility in counseling with individuals, since the individual needs to know his probabilities of success in an occupation in order to make a wise choice. While some persons will choose occupations in which there is practically no chance of failure, others will be willing to gamble at long odds by entering an occupation in which they have some, but little, chance for success.

Thus it would seem that research on both choice and success are of equal importance. Research must be directed toward discovering relationships in both areas. We need studies of interactions of variables and their relative weights as they determine vocational choice and success, and we need research on mediating factors, which produce interindividual and intra-individual variability and which in interaction finally produce choice and productivity.

The main value of this book lies in its integration of much research—primarily trait and factor research—which has been published on the scientist, the mathematician, and the engineer. This research is fragmentary and but little has been done in the areas of social systems, personality, job definition, job analyses, and the interaction of personal, societal and occupational variables important to vocational success and the development of vocational choice.



# CP SPEAKS

## HUMANIZING PSYCHOLOGY

THE great and current American dilemma: Whether to pour money, enthusiasm, and prestige into scientific and technological education so as to keep up with the Soviets, preserving some of our liberties by sacrificing others, or whether to attempt to reinforce the humanities as well as science, amplifying at once both the endeavors of our cloven scholarship. Can America afford both, or even one? Perhaps it might if it could bring itself to exchange rewards, surrendering material comfort for spiritual exhilaration; yet could it ever do that? Meanwhile the American predicament is real.

For this problem CP has no miraculous remedy all ready for revelation; yet, because it thinks of its own effort as directed in a sense toward the humanizing of psychology, CP feels that its comment on America's plight is not inappropriate, at least as far as it concerns American psychology.

If the world's most prosperous nation cannot, by an act of sheer power, treble the intensity of its educational effort in both science and the humanities—it is the American delusion that the will to success needs only to be strong enough in order to prevail—then surely a first step is to look out a way to amalgamate the sciences and the humanities so that they may prosper together and not at each other's expense. With this aim in mind a committee of the American Council of Learned Societies worked for five years to uncover and describe the humanistic aspects of science, and recently they published a volume about their findings, calling it *Science and the Creative Spirit* (K. V. Deutsch, F. E. L. Priestley, Harcourt Brown, and David Hawkins, Univ. Toronto Press, 1958, pp. xxvii + 165, \$4.50). It is a good book but it does not render much aid

in the present predicament. In it we see again how knowledge as such is one, though the individual be forced to specialize. There are and always have been cross-currents between the sciences and the humanities, and it is indeed scarcely more than a century since natural philosophy counted as literature. John Turner, writing editorially in *Science* (30 May 1958, 127, 1267) has, however, a word of practical advice: Teach science humanistically. Go not only broad but also deep. He quotes Alfred Whitehead on how depth is right for general education, how vertical penetration means more for the cultivated man than horizontal spread.

So here CP raises the basic question. Are there ways in which modern psychology, that social institution known for the past hundred years as *Psychology*, ways in which it can, in spite of its ardent and vocal dedication to science and its aggressive repudiation of whatever argument is not experimental in origin, are there ways in which Psychology can edge itself over toward humanism, strengthening, not weakening, its proficiency the while? Here is what CP thinks.

(a) *Scope*. Breadth is good. So is depth, and the two work against each other. Just the same, breadth is good, and the wise man knows more than his own *Fach*. CP has correspondents who write that they battle constantly against complete ignorance of any considerable segment of psychology, and it has other correspondents, young men, who say that they were never sure as to just what is this Psychology in which they got their PhDs until CP began handing them its sample packages: It is CP's packaging, of course, dear old idiosyncratic CP; yet the selection is a lot more definitive than a PhD examination, and maybe—CP heard this whisper

—the American Psychological Association would stay married and not break up again if only every half knew how the other half thinks. Being a liberal in psychology is a step toward humanization, and arrogance, while it is often the additive that dynamizes research, may at other times be the prejudice that stops progress in its tracks.

(b) *Xenophilia* is geographical scope. The cultivated psychologist knows, besides other subjects, the psychology and psychologists of other lands. Twice CP has been wistful about Americans' not knowing the other languages in which psychology is being thought (CP, Nov. 1956, 1, 331f.; Apr. 1957, 2, 105). Your dedicated experimentalist says: Substitute statistics and electronics for the languages; they are more important tools. Others say: Russian has now made the idea of learning the 'essential' languages impracticable; what we need are translation services—as well as computing centers and commercially designed black boxes. True, but how are psychologists to think wisely except in the atmosphere of other men's thinking? The social institution that is Psychology is international. Do we not need wisdom as well as skill and competence?

(c) *History* is temporal scope. You need to know of other times as well as other lands. Why? Because, says the dedicated researcher, you want not to be caught doing over an experiment that has already been done. Nonsense. No historically sophisticated psychologist knows for relevant citation the 328,690 articles cited merely since 1894 in the *Psychological Index* and the *Psychological Abstracts*. One gets from a knowledge of the history of psychology not facts but wisdom. One sees how thought works itself out, how human nature operates in the social institution to generate discovery and also sometimes to prevent it. One acquires knowledge in learning history, but the purpose of the learning is not the acquisition of facts but cultivation of wisdom.

(d) *Objectivity* is a humanizing attribute. The wise man sees whole. Here we come up against a dilemma within science, the motivational predicament. 'Enthusiasm is the friend of action and the enemy of wisdom.' Current enthusiasms—prejudices, if you like—get the

discoveries made and the theories laid out; and then posterity, sober, wiser, and more objective, assesses the work, accepts some and discards some. You have to have both attitudes, and the good scientist oscillates between the two, now checking his enthusiasm with criticism, now bursting restraints in a flight of fancy. Spread of knowledge, both into the past and across the broad sweep of the present, supports this critical wisdom. Objectivity is good, yet the predicament is real, for enthusiasm is needed too. The dilemma is met by fluctuation of attitude from moment to moment in the individual investigator, from person to person within the science.

(e) *Depth* is what Whitehead recommended for general education. It is also what President Lowell of Harvard put into undergraduate education at Harvard College nearly fifty years ago, when he made the AB into "the little Ph.D.," as some called it. The evidence was that the successful college graduates, assessed twenty-five years after their ABs, tended to be those men who had in college gone deep into a subject, not those who spread broad by taking many elementary courses in different subjects. So here is a paradox or perhaps another predicament. Depth or scope? Obviously both, as much as you can. If not in the same man, then in different men associated in the same endeavor. The pursuit of knowledge is, moreover, like mining; you go deep but you also go where the ore lies. There is an isolated kind of concentration that ignores the side veins. Depth goes broad underground. It is not wholly incompatible with scope.

(f) *Diversification* is the way to eat your cake and have it too, the way to succeed in spite of predicaments. The individual gets a balance by fluctuation. The science gets it by the distribution of attitudes and endeavors among individuals and the maintenance of communication among them. Let the science itself be wisely mature, though it depend for existence on the adolescent enthusiasm of its workers.

Does all this talk get us anywhere? CP feels, as it views the steady stream of psychology's books and the reviews of them, that the psychologists resist the humanizing deviations that would bring their science over toward scholar-

ship and wisdom and understanding, resist them sometimes because they are dedicated to a narrow empiricism and sometimes because they have accepted a model for rigid theorizing. Their science could go deeper and broader, becoming more objective as a consequence, and so gain strength and importance and significance. True, it would not be

much of a step toward the humanities, but it would be a move in that direction; and the new psychologists who grew up in this altered atmosphere, being better educated, wiser, and no less proficient, would throw America less out of balance as it seeks to multiply its scientific competence.

—E. G. B.

## Leadership: Many Stones and One Monument

Ralph M. Stogdill

*Leadership and Structures of Personal Interaction.* (Ohio Studies in Personnel; Bureau of Business Research Monograph No. 84.) Columbus: Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, Ohio State University, 1957. Pp. xiii + 90. \$2.00.

Ralph M. Stogdill, Ellis J. Scott, and William E. Jaynes

*Leadership and Role Expectations.* (Bureau of Business Research Monograph No. 86.) Pp. xv + 168. \$2.00.

Ralph M. Stogdill and Alvin E. Coons (Eds.)

*Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement.* (Bureau of Business Research Monograph No. 88.) Pp. xv + 158.

Reviewed by MARVIN D. DUNNETTE

*Dr. Dunnette is one of the many successful émigrés from engineering to psychology, this time to industrial psychology. It was D. G. Paterson who introduced him to psychology, and he was for several years a member of the Industrial Relations Center at the University of Minnesota, where he was when he created the Minnesota Engineering Analogies Test. He is now Advisor on Employees Relations Research at the Minnesota Mining and Mfg. Company, where he works on the validation of tests for persons at high administrative levels or in specialized jobs. He is also engaged in the objective description of jobs.*

THESE monographs are three in the continuing series of technical reports summarizing the rationale, methods, and major results of the first ten years (1946–1956) of the Ohio State Leadership studies. The program of re-

search has been supported, over the years, by U. S. Navy funds; the approach has been interdisciplinary as evidenced by a staff of psychologists, sociologists, and economists.

The monographs are technical papers. One gains the impression, in reading them, that the files and desk drawers bearing ten years of research data were simply emptied and the materials distributed among staff members with assignments to "write up the data." This comment is not made in a disparaging vein, however, for it is commendable that the Ohio State group has seen fit to present its research in such detail that an outsider might follow it with the thoroughness usually reserved for insiders. A reader gains glimpses, therefore, of the planning, the many conferences, and the lengthy discussions undergirding the research effort. He is able to trace the painstaking steps during each phase, and he is granted the



privilege of actually seeing the various tests and measuring scales used in the program. The reader is, moreover, able to examine table after table of research results; and, if he is so inclined, he may come to conclusions or draw inferences differing from those suggested by the authors. It is not common for a research group to offer so much of the evidence. The Ohio State researchers should be commended for their generosity.

A casual reader who is interested simply in an overview of the research will, of course, find himself burdened and possibly confused by these detailed technical reports. Such a reader would do well to refer instead to C. L. Shattle's recent book, *Executive Performance and Leadership* (Prentice-Hall, 1956). It is an excellent popularization and simplification of much of the content included in the various research monographs.

**M**ONOGRAPH No. 84 describes techniques employed for the measurement of personal interrelations in a number of naval organizations. Interaction Structure was studied by asking members of an organization the simple question: "With whom do you spend the most time in getting work done?" From the responses were derived a number of interaction indexes, such as the number of mentions given and received from persons above or below one's own level, inside or outside the organization, etc. These indexes, along with estimates of Responsibility, Authority, and Delegation, were used to study the impact of organization changes and to measure interrelationships among these and a variety of other organizational characteristics, such as department size and unit morale. All this, of course, leads to a rather startling array of correlation tables. A good portion of the monograph is devoted to the discussion of these correlations and theorizing based on the results.

And this, in turn, is the frightening part of such a 'shotgun' approach. Conservatively estimated, the number of correlation coefficients presented in this monograph is 3,963. By chance, one must expect 40 to be significant at the

1%-level and another 160 to be significant at the 5%-level. Conclusions based on such 'statisticizing' must be tenuous at best even if grounded on sound hypotheses. When much of the theorizing is after the fact (as in the present monograph), one wonders whether or not it really has been worth the effort.

**M**ONOGRAPH No. 86 outdoes the preceding in the number of correlations calculated by a staggering 8,896—12,859 altogether. The effort here has been to study the impact of role performance and role expectation on leader characteristics and behavior.

Data were gathered from a naval organization divided into six major divisions and were obtained from a total of 183 persons. The data consisted of descriptions of behavior along 45 dimensions. Comparisons were made between and among the many dimensions, and many contrasts were drawn between descriptions of actual behavior and descriptions of expected behavior. Information presented early in the monograph shows the unfortunate fact that inter-rater reliabilities of only 19 of the 45 dimensions achieve statistical significance, and these by only a bare margin!

With these low and often nonsignificant reliabilities in mind, the reviewer felt a strange discontent as he scanned the many tables and their 12,859 correlation coefficients.

The authors sum up their view of their efforts as follows:

However, the authors do not feel that their time was wasted any more than the chemist feels so when he is required to process tons of crude materials in order to extract a gram of a very rare element. The use of comparatively crude methods often stimulates the development of more refined ones.

One may well ask, however, how the chemist might feel if he learned, after application of crude methods, that he had refined not a rare element but simply a pile of useless rock.

**I**N sharp contrast with the first two monographs, Monograph No. 88 is a gem. Papers in this monograph were prepared individually by a number of former and present staff members of

the Ohio State group. They trace the development, evolution, and major results obtained with the Ohio State Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire which has served a central role in the leadership research.

Description of the behavior of leaders was undertaken in the hope that confusion between "leadership" and "good leadership" might be reduced. The common evaluative paradigm of the traditional studies of leadership was discarded, therefore, in favor of a broader behavioral descriptive paradigm—thus the central role played by the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire.

This monograph should be on the reading list for students enrolled in courses of test and scale construction. It is a magnificent case study of the problems and procedures involved in the careful development and validation of a good questionnaire. The reader should find many of the studies with the questionnaire to be of interest, especially those relating leader behavior to the relative effectiveness of such administrators as aircraft commanders, heads of college departments, industrial supervisors, and sales supervisors.

The monograph is characterized by precise writing and careful objectivity. It is a good example of some of the more valuable contributions made by the Ohio State group in the study of leadership.

The over-all impression formed by these reports is that a massive amount of data has been accumulated and processed. Much of the processing has failed to yield anything of lasting significance. Some, however, appears to be of great usefulness, enough to become a starting point and a help for future research in leadership. It is good to have available the sort of detail and technical data included in these reports. It would be a boon to researchers everywhere if other research groups would follow Ohio State in this practice of publishing thorough reports of research undertaken and completed.



*It is with books as with men: a very small number play a great part—the rest are lost in the multitude.*

—VOLTAIRE

# New Ideas about Hypnotic Therapy

Ainslie Meares

*Hypnography: A Study in the Therapeutic Use of Hypnotic Painting.*  
Springfield, Ill.: Charles C Thomas, 1957. Pp. viii + 271. \$7.75.

Reviewed by MARTIN T. ORNE

Dr. Orne is a psychologist with a PhD in clinical psychology from Harvard University, and he is also a psychiatrist with an MD from Tufts University. He is a resident at the Massachusetts Mental Health Center, and his principal research for a few years now has been on the nature of the hypnotic state. He recently reviewed Heron's *Clinical Applications of Suggestion and Hypnosis* (Charles C Thomas, 1957; CP, Aug. 1958, 3, 231f.).

DR. MEARES is a practicing psychiatrist in Australia, the author of many papers and some books about therapeutic technique. One of his special interests has been the therapeutic use of hypnosis. In the book under review he describes a new therapeutic technique which he has developed over the past several years.

In his preface he states that "this volume is offered as a clinical study in the therapeutic use of hypnotic painting, and related phenomena. It is essentially a clinical study. It is in no way the result of a research project in the ordinarily accepted meaning of the term. The material is merely the recorded observations of patients under treatment." He adds that nine-tenths of the work came from private practice and only a small portion from the psychiatric department of a general hospital. It was done, he says, in the practice of eclectic psychiatry and only patients who were expected to benefit by hypnosis were treated in this fashion. "Of the patients who are hypnotized, only those requiring insight therapy have been treated with hypnography."

No attempt at validation or any other form of control of this technique has yet been made, and the author pleads that others test his technique or develop it further.

Within these stated aims and limitations, the reviewer feels the author has done an excellent job in presenting the technique and rationale of the method, as well as in illustrating its utility in five cases. Hypnography is essentially a technique to obtain from patients in hypnosis graphic material produced by means of a paint brush and black paint. It is viewed by the author as including the patient's associations to his pictures. The reader is repeatedly cautioned—a most necessary caution—that interpretations can only be accepted in terms of the patient's associations. Thus the technique presented is more than a discussion of how to obtain hypnotic paintings; rather it points to a means of integrating material obtained in hypnography into the total framework of psychotherapy.

The introductory discussion about trance induction, general considerations, and the technique of hypnography is permeated with practical orientation. Two matters in it are most striking: (1) the author's plea for nonauthoritarian hypnosis and (2) his manner of testing for hypnotizability during a routine physical examination.

The traditional suggestive uses of hypnotherapy he condemns, as also the overly dramatic, somewhat theatrical poses of the older medical hypnotists. Instead of 'overpowering' the subject, trance should be induced by the hypnotist's taking a permissive role adapted

to the needs of the patient. Meares insists that "at the first meeting with the patient the initial passivity of the therapist is important. This allows the patient to set the pace, to take charge if necessary." He makes a major issue of the hypnotist's need to have the patient do the work of trance induction. Many readers may view this approach as seductive rather than passive. Unfortunately, Dr. Meares fails to discuss the psychodynamics of his trance induction procedure.

SEVERAL points are discussed in this introduction which have not been emphasized sufficiently elsewhere and which Dr. Meares justifiably calls to our attention. He points out that trance induction is markedly affected by what the patient is told about the hypnotist, the appearance of the office, as well as the initial personal contact. Furthermore it is better to display competence than omnipotence. Moreover the use of hypnosis in treatment is an adjunct rather than a substitute for psychotherapy.

The casual mention of the fact that routine physical examinations are performed on all patients during the initial interview appears as rather remarkable to the American reader. It is unfortunate that the author makes no comment about this aspect of the doctor-patient relationship and how it affects subsequent psychotherapy. Nevertheless the use of the neurological part of the examination as a screening device for hypnotizability is interesting and needs further investigation. One may infer that the patient perceives the doctor as a medical psychotherapist with the emphasis on medicine rather than on psychotherapy.

A particularly cogent warning is emphasized—a warning which has not been fully recognized in much of the literature dealing with hypnosis. Meares states that, "when a patient presents himself specifically for treatment by hypnosis, it is wise to examine his reasons for selecting hypnosis in preference to other forms of treatment." The author points to many pathological reasons which prompt patients to seek hypnosis in preference to recognizing their need for psychotherapy. Particularly is it true

that early schizophrenics and paranoid patients may seek treatment by hypnosis. Meares says, "The motivation of these patients is that they expect feelings of influence. . . . By being hypnotized they hope to free it from the noxious influence. . . . Psychosis or incipient psychosis is usually regarded as a contra-indication for hypnosis." The reviewer fervently agrees with these statements with the hope that they will become more generally accepted.

One of the particularly refreshing aspects of this book is its attention to the details of the procedure. The author mentions a number of the difficulties which are encountered in practice and how he deals with them—such problems as what to do about spilling the paint, the kind of brushes he uses, the kind of physical arrangement he has found most suitable, etc. It may be expected that these suggestions will save future workers with hypnography considerable trouble.

The most serious drawback of the book lies in its five illustrative case histories. They are extremely brief—as the author acknowledges. He says, "Hypnography is merely one technique in the general psychotherapy of the patient; accordingly it is felt that full case histories would contain too much irrelevant material for a book which is primarily intended as a discussion of a special technique." He presents each case with a large number of drawings and relevant associations. He outlines the course of treatment. Yet it is not possible to obtain any real feeling for the manner in which hypnography was integrated into the over-all psychotherapy of the patient. It might have been better to present only one or two cases more extensively.

This book presents an extremely interesting new approach to hypnotherapy, as well as a down-to-earth pragmatic point of view toward hypnosis. While some of the author's statements may seem strange to the American reader, the reviewer feels that this is one of the few recent books on the topic of hypnosis that is worth while. Whatever the eventual judgment about the merits of hypnography as a technique, the ideas presented are stimulating and interesting.

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# Controls: Sphincter and Censor

Joseph J. Michaels

*Disorders of Character: Persistent Enuresis, Juvenile Delinquency, Psychopathic Personality.* Springfield, Ill.: Charles C Thomas, 1955. Pp. x + 148. \$4.75.

Reviewed by ALBERT EGLASH

Dr. Eglash is Assistant Professor of Psychology at Washington College in Chestertown, Maryland. After obtaining his PhD at the University of Michigan in 1951 and a short spell of teaching and research, he spent three years in rehabilitation work in Detroit, organizing and leading groups that undertook to apply the methods of *Alcoholics Anonymous* to down-and-outers—alcoholics, criminals, mental patients. He organized *Delinquents Anonymous*, later called *Youth Anonymous*.

AMONG children exposed to 'delinquent' factors in the home, neighborhood, and larger social scene, some become delinquent, but others not. Some children are constitutionally resistant to delinquency; others are relatively susceptible (cf. Maier's low threshold for fixation). Michaels' concern is with this constitutional susceptibility and with an early symptom, the failure to achieve bladder control (Ferenczi's sphincter morality).

Michaels' thesis is that persistent (as distinguished from transitory, recurrent, neurotic, or regressive) enuresis reflects the same delay in maturation of normal control mechanisms, the same lack of an internal inhibitory agency, and the same personality malintegration as are found in the delinquent and the psychopath. Persistent enuresis, chronic delinquency, and the psychopathic personality he sees as parallel symptoms of the impulse-ridden urethral-erotic character who acts out his aggressions.

Trained in psychiatry and neurology at the University of Michigan and at Harvard, Michaels received his psychoanalytic training in Vienna. His present

affiliations include the Boston Psychoanalytic Institute, the Harvard Medical School, and the Beth Israel Hospital. A distinguished career in psychiatric practice and research, including certification in neurology, psychiatry, and psychoanalysis, is distilled in this monograph. It summarizes his previously published studies, reflecting his growing insight over a 25-year period into an analogy between sphincter-control and impulse-control. He first saw persistent enuresis solely as a neurological disturbance; later, with psychoanalytic implications; presently, as a psycho-sociobiological problem.

One charm of the book is that Michaels is quite explicit about his changing views (as in Mowrer's *Learning Theory and Personality Dynamics*). His ability to suggest, clarify, and support hypotheses with clinical and statistical data (in this respect similar to Lander's *Towards an Understanding of Juvenile Delinquency*), to piece together insights from the clinical and social disciplines (his 235-item bibliography has impressive breadth), and to present his thinking in a challenging and readable style—they all serve to make this text both interesting and scholarly, thoroughly worthwhile reading.

The author's presentation reflects a rich clinical background and a search for pertinent statistical data. These data suggest strongly that persistent enuresis and any chronic delinquency accompanying it are grounded in a neurological disturbance which is responsible for a character disorder and for faulty interpersonal relations; but Michaels has too much respect for human complexity to ascribe either enuresis or de-

linquency to a single factor. His book remains broad and undogmatic. He recognizes that some children with persistent enuresis remain nondelinquent, that enuresis and delinquency have a different significance for different children, and that, even for the same child, these behaviors are overdetermined. He simply concludes that there is a certain type of serious delinquent with a history of persistent enuresis who suffers a character disorder for which the delinquency and enuresis are parallel symptoms.

Michaels is contributing here to many areas. His book suggests additional understanding of the psychological mechanisms or processes involved when a delinquent act is committed, and of delinquency-proneness. It points out the value of distinguishing persistent enuresis as symptomatic of a neurosis or of a character disorder. It delineates the urethral character, largely neglected in psychoanalytic typology. This brief volume offers suggestions pertinent to diagnosis, prediction, and treatment, and even to child-rearing and parent education.

DESPITE these contributions, the book's impact has thus far been negligible. The Gluecks' delinquency-prediction scales focus upon parental attitudes; their *Physique and Delinquency* (1956) relegates Michaels to a one-sentence footnote. An outstanding text on the psychopathic personality, the McCords' *Psychopathy and Delinquency* (1956), mentions Michaels in a brief sentence, half a footnote. Other current tests on delinquency or on criminology fail to mention either Michaels or enuresis. Treatment techniques for enuresis—hypnosis, brief psychotherapy, surgical or medical intervention, Mowrer's conditioning apparatus—all disregard its possible significance as a character disorder.

Why this lack of influence? I think there may be two reasons for it. First, this book is not primarily directed to those concerned with prevention or treatment of a specific social problem, such as enuresis or delinquency, but to those interested in an understanding of behavior in general and in good theories





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about behavior. This generality is reflected in previous reviews, consistently enthusiastic, but inconsistent in identifying the book's central point. The *Psychoanalytic Quarterly* evaluates the book as an important contribution to psychiatry in general, and the *Psychological Abstracts* lists the book under Behavior Disorders rather than under the subhead, Delinquency. At the same time, the *British Journal of Delinquency* discusses Michaels' writings as a contribution to the literature on delinquency, and I assume that I have been asked to review this book because of my own interest in that topic. The *American Journal of Psychiatry* describes the book's focal point as enuresis, while *Orthopsychiatry* considers it "our most impressive modern treatise on the little-understood problem of the psychopath."

Secondly, Michaels, at least in his treatment of delinquency and probably in his treatment of enuresis and of the psychopath, is swimming against the main current. Concern with biological and constitutional factors is common in research on alcoholism and schizophrenia, but, outside of research on Sheldon's somatotypes, current emphasis in studies of delinquency is with environmental factors and with such psychological factors as the self concept.

Most experts on delinquency try to identify, by intuition or research, those environmental factors that contribute to children's problems, and then damn them (working mothers, fathers who don't wear the pants, comics, TV) or legislate against them (jail the parents whose children break curfews or windows).

Michaels' thoughtful essay will rile those who make scapegoats of parents, teachers, and adults in general. He would probably agree with Omar Khayyam that the Potter made some vessels weak indeed, and assert that if these children are to find their niche outside of the training schools and prisons, they need early identification—and early help. Fortunately, community projects designed to achieve these goals—projects like Detroit's School-Community Project—are currently functioning.



## Social Sciences: Too Soon to Integrate Them?

Jurgen Ruesch

*Disturbed Communication: The Clinical Assessment of Normal and Pathological Communicative Behavior.* New York: W. W. Norton, 1957. Pp. viii + 337. \$6.00.

Reviewed by RICHARD L. CUTLER

*Dr. Cutler, Assistant Professor of Psychology at the University of Michigan, stands astride psychology, with one foot on clinical psychology and the other on general, holding developmental psychology in one hand and the bands of interdisciplinary fusion in the other, while he mouths tough thoughts into simple teaching. He reviewed Sol Garfield's Introductory Clinical Psychology in CP (Apr. 1958, 2, 100f.).*

IN the history of science, every age must appear to its own scientists to be a time of fruition and realization, a time when the halting progress of preceding generations will surely culminate in decisive breakthroughs to truly significant theories, laws, and actions. The technology and methodology of any age, as well as the store of knowledge and talent available to it, must seem vastly superior to that of its preceding periods. Looking backward, it is easy to lose perspective and to minimize the effort involved in solving what now appear to be simple problems. As a result, the temptation to put things together in an integrated, semi-final form presses heavily upon all of us.

The social scientist of today seems particularly prone to be tempted in this way. Emboldened by the successes of their brethren in the physical sciences, they overlook the fact that their disciplines are mere infants, and expect that they will immediately produce the H-bomb of sociology or a theory of relativity for psychology. They have even gone so far as to institutionalize this

process of integration, establishing Institutes for Advanced Study, Behavioral Science Research Groups, and Havens for General Systems Theorists.

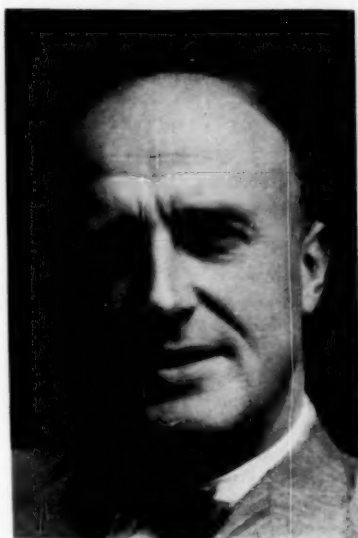
Several factors, however, operate to the disadvantage of any individual who seeks today to provide an integrating theory in the social sciences. Fundamental knowledge in many of the subdivisions of the area is almost totally lacking. Such part theories as do exist fail to meet the most basic criteria of an adequate scientific system. There is no agreement upon what constitutes a proper theory of science for the social sciences. The problem of establishing basic units for observation and measurement has only recently been recognized and will not be solved quickly. There exists a redundancy of terms and constructs which baffles even the most rigorous explorer, and which militates against the systematic translation of one set into another. Finally, the complexity of the observed events and the multiplicity of levels at which they may be interpreted make their mere comprehension, to say nothing of their integration, the task of a scientific lifetime.

This discouraging state of affairs is not without certain advantage to those who strive for an early integration of the social sciences. It permits the exercise of a degree of artistic license in the interpretation of observations. The complexity of the phenomena and the myriad of concepts make the logical analysis of new formulations a task which few will have the time and patience to attempt, thus encouraging the

acceptance or rejection of such formulations on other than scientific grounds. Old ideas with new names may appear as new ideas, or may be cast in a form sufficiently different to breed enthusiasm for their further consideration. The theorist skilled in analogy finds opportunity for the generation of hypothesis after hypothesis, merely by viewing a microcosm in the terms of a macrocosm. Finally, the ambiguity of communication allowed by language makes easy the creation of a kind of semantic Jello, in which a term once defined rigorously can be jiggled and shaken until it takes on quite a different form and covers quite a different part of the scene.

**S**UCH are the difficulties and possible criticisms faced by Jurgen Ruesch in his authorship of *Disturbed Communication*. The fact that he produced the book in spite of them is a tribute to his intellectual courage. It is also a symbol of his deep conviction that knowledge in the areas of society, culture, and personality can now be integrated around what, to him, is their basic common element—communication.

In view of his breadth of interest and experience, it is not surprising that Dr. Ruesch would have recognized the need for such an integration. From his childhood exposure to the trilingual and tricultural scene in Switzerland, he has developed a continuing interest in peoples and cultures, and in the common aspects of social and interpersonal relationships which they share. His professional work as a psychiatrist brings him into daily contact with individual psychopathology, and sensitizes him to the deficiencies of present formulations about personality. A perusal of his bibliography, much of which is incorporated into the present work, reveals his concern with such varied aspects of human behavior as social status, acculturation and illness, anxiety, duodenal ulcer, and psychological response to thyroidectomy. It is basically his dissatisfaction with what appears to be an artificial separation in the study of these aspects of behavior which has led him to the present effort. The need for comprehensive understanding and explanation, which exists in every scientist, is translated in



JURGEN RUESCH

his case into this attempt at integration.

Neither is it startling that he would choose communication theory as the vehicle through which to transmit his insights. His early talent for and fascination with the process of communication are illustrated by the fact that he was fluent in three languages before the age of ten. More recently, while studying anxiety in the setting of the psychotherapeutic relationship, he became interested in the significance of nonverbal communication as a means to understanding the therapeutic process. He was led, in turn, to an examination of the formal aspects of communication theory, cybernetics, and general systems theory. This line of inquiry culminated in the publication of *Communication—The Social Matrix of Psychiatry* (1951), a collaborative effort with Gregory Bateson.

**T**HE present book is divided into two major parts. The first, titled *The Nature of Communication Pathology*, consists of six chapters and is the theoretical heart of Ruesch's presentation. In it, he attempts to translate child development, personality theory, social psychology, and group dynamics into the terms of communication theory, with varying success.

Those sections concerned with the

formal aspects of the theory and with the genesis of disturbed communication are quite persuasive and represent the most original and worthwhile contributions of the work. By contrast, the treatment of disturbances of communication in childhood contains only the standard concepts of child development, interpreted somewhat loosely in the terms of the theory. The section on adult pathology is little more than a listing of character types, including the infantile person, the person of action, the demonstrative person, the logical person, the anxious and fearful person, and the depressed person. It is here that the efforts at translation and systematization are least effective. Social and group pathology is interpreted in a quite standard fashion, drawing heavily upon the concepts of group dynamics.

The second part of the book, *The Clinical Observation of Communicative Behavior*, is a detailed guide for the coding and understanding of behavior in the terms of the theory. The reader is well advised not to be overwhelmed by its complexity, which approaches that of the observations it seeks to categorize, since it contains many of the author's most exciting insights. Each category of communication is paralleled by a listing of potential disturbances in it, and this technique often succeeds in recasting familiar problems in a new and stimulating form.

The difficulties inherent in the production of an integrated theory of human behavior have been dealt with in detail above. While none of them has been overcome in the present volume, nevertheless we have here a new and challenging view of the problems in the field. The reader will be disappointed if he approaches the book expecting to find a rigorous scientific system capable of empirical test. Its contribution lies in the presentation of clinical insights, suggestive hypotheses, and occasional brilliant translations of one set of terms into another.

Ruesch's contribution is made in the context of a free-wheeling style which is at the same time stimulating and confounding. On numerous occasions the present reviewer was stimulated to ask questions, to pursue implied points to their logical conclusions, and to explore

with the author the source of many of his hypotheses. Since no author can anticipate the specific content of such inquiries from his reader, the reader may find himself frustrated by the lack of opportunity to pursue the discussion further.

In spite of the publisher's announcement, this is not a book for laymen. Neither should it be read outside the context of the earlier work by Ruesch and Bateson. Nevertheless, it should find an appreciative audience among psychiatrists who wish a more comprehensive framework for the interpretation of their patients' behavior, and among social scientists, to whom it will provide stimulating raw material for discussion and systematization.

## The Retarded Id

Max L. Hutt and Robert Gwyn Gibby

*The Mentally Retarded Child: Development, Education, and Guidance.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon. 1958. Pp. xii + 334. \$4.50.

Reviewed by SAMUEL A. KIRK

who is Professor of Education at the University of Illinois and, since 1952, Director of its Institute for Research on Exceptional Children. He is the author of many articles and several books on exceptional children. He is a former president of the International Council for Exceptional Children. He has served as a teacher of the mentally retarded, a research psychologist, a remedial teacher, a director of teaching training, and now as a researcher and director of research.

TWENTY years ago few, if any, books were published about mentally retarded children. Today the retarded child has attained great popularity, for books about him are published in great numbers—by laymen, psychologists, psychiatrists, educators, and medical practitioners. As clinical psychologists, the present authors have attempted to apply their theoretical clinical knowledge

to the problems of mentally retarded children. Max L. Hutt is Associate Professor of Psychology at the University of Michigan, and Dr. Robert G. Gibby is Chief of the Clinical Psychology Service at the Veterans' Hospital in Richmond, Virginia.

According to them, this book was published primarily to assist the teachers and the parents of retarded children. The subtitle of the book is *Development, Education, and Guidance*. It postulates a wide gap between our present advanced knowledge of the retarded child and current practices in his management, particularly by teachers and parents.

The book is heavily loaded with psychoanalytic concepts, and the ideas reported come primarily from literature other than that of mental retardation. The writers lean heavily on Doll's definition of mental deficiency which is primarily applicable to the adult mentally deficient rather than to children with retarded mental development. The text also employs the American Psychiatric Association's classification of the mentally retarded into *mild, moderate, and severe*. Although this terminology is used by a few psychiatrists, it has little practical value for either the parent or the teacher.

The chapter given to assessment and evaluation consists primarily of a description of intelligence and personality tests. It has little reference to the special applicability of the tests to mentally retarded children. A large part of the book is given to an explanation of psychoanalytic concepts. Such topics as *homeostasis, anxiety, conscious, pre-conscious, and unconscious levels*, together with *oral, anal, and phallic periods*, are discussed with some reference to their applicability to the mentally retarded child. Likewise *id, ego, and superego* are described and exemplified. The authors state, without empirical evidence, that in mentally retarded children the *id, ego, and superego* develop at a slower rate than in the normal child. What the teacher or parent can do about this slowness of maturation is not discussed.

This reviewer wonders how much impact the following statement has on the management of such children by par-

ents and teachers—"Toilet training also is a difficult process for the mentally retarded child. His fixations at the oral level make it more difficult for him to cope with the problems of the anal level. . . . In the earlier phases of this period he is more prone to play with his feces, smear them over himself and objects, and perhaps eat them. This may horrify his mother, and negative reactions emotionally traumatize him" (p. 159). Actually, little experimental evidence is presented to show that, for example, the retarded child plays with his feces more than a nonretarded child of comparable chronological or mental age.

THE general position taken in the book is that more attention should be given to the dynamic aspects of mental retardation. While the authors discuss such intelligence tests as the Stanford-Binet, and the biological etiological factors in mental retardation, their emphasis is on the understanding of the retarded child and his personality development. These aspects are stressed more than in any other book on the mentally retarded. The reader is reminded that there are no peculiar personality traits in the mentally retarded that do not exist in average children. The hypothesis, presented over and over again, is that the retarded child is delayed in maturation and does not achieve the independence of the average child. In other words, just as he is slow in mental maturation, he is also slow in personality maturation.

One of the major defects in the book is the lack of differentiation between the different levels of mental retardation. The authors speak of mentally retarded children as if they were a homogeneous group. At times they disregard the extensive literature in the field of the mentally retarded, preferring to cite one or two articles, particularly when the articles are psychoanalytically oriented. For example (p. 172), the book states: "A frequent problem in mentally retarded children is that of reading disability, which is likely to be a part of a psychoneurosis or primary behavior problem." This section of the book disregards the extensive literature



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in the area (such as that reviewed by Lloyd Dunn in *Child Development Monographs*, 1956) and refers only to two articles, one from the *International Journal of Psychoanalysis* of 1930 and one from *Mental Hygiene* in 1936.

Although the book presumes to assist teachers, only one chapter is devoted to education, guidance, and treatment. Fewer than twelve pages are devoted to educational programs.

The reviewer feels that the volume should have been given a different title than *The Mentally Retarded Child*. Actually very little of the extensive literature on the mentally retarded child is utilized in this book. Instead, the au-

thors repeat psychological information from test procedures, as well as the psychoanalytic concepts that are found in other books, but they do not actually bridge the gap between that information and what teachers and parents can do about it. This reviewer thinks that theoretical positions, clinically useful for adults, are not readily applicable to mentally retarded children. Theories and concepts from the field of child development show teachers and parents better what to do with mentally retarded children than what clinical psychologists can hypothesize about mentally retarded children from experiences with mentally disturbed patients.

etiological concerns take over effectively for the balance of the volume. While the reviewer does not say what he means by "severe derangement," the book has more data on the continuum of mental ills (even within a given area, say, in Africa), including a variety of neurotic problems, than it has on any point in that continuum. Further, as the book indicates, the more serious illnesses are becoming more characteristic of urbanization throughout the world. In any case, the reviewer would be well-advised of the fact that the world's population today at mid-century is still not in anything like a majority "highly urbanized and industrialized." With the 1960 Mental Health Year only about 12 months away, we can dispense with the parochialism of assuming that Western European middle-class neuroticisms are the best way to characterize man's mental health ills. This fact was pointed out in the book.

Most astonishing, the review claims there is no definition in the book of the orbit and professional competence of social psychiatry. We are both agreed as to there being such a competence in behavioral science. My book is, however, about the findings and the process of such research and not about its academic organization. In this sense, the whole work is about a competence in behavioral science or competencies in this new field of social psychiatry. It is not about medical-school curricula or behavioral-science training to which the reviewer quixotically devotes most of two paragraphs.

The third from last paragraph in a review of eight paragraphs finally approaches the substance of the book, but, while the reviewer quotes me in one sentence at the beginning, he should have indicated that the points following were also mine. He then breaks off the discussion abruptly by stating that we should not place the investigators of social forces on "one side" and psychiatrists on the other. Only he, not the book, does this. We both bewail a lack of behavioral science in most medical curricula. But by discussing such points extraneous to the book as if they were its substance, the reviewer adds a second straw man to the first, and neither has anything to do with the book. A good many behavioral scientists, myself included, and a good many books like *Culture, Psychiatry and Human Values* function in multi-disciplinary settings with the hope of reducing those very schisms that Dr. Wyatt would like to see reduced.

MARVIN K. OPLER

Department of Psychiatry  
University of Buffalo Medical School

## ON THE OTHER HAND



### CULTURE, PSYCHIATRY AND HUMAN VALUES

Dr. Frederick Wyatt's review of my book, *Culture, Psychiatry and Human Values* (CP, Aug. 1958, 3, 229f.), begins with the bold statement, "Here is a survey of what is known about the social determinants of mental illness." It ends with comment on the book's having the necessary "materials, conceptual skills and erudition" for the task. But it comes under the heading of a review which says that all this is scholarly, conceptually sound, and important—yet, for reasons best known to the reviewer and not properly communicated, it doesn't quite come off. Dr. Wyatt's chief objection to the presentation and organization of materials is introduced by the dictum that one cannot compile research data on the relationships of psychopathology to society and thoroughly discuss the methodology involved at the same time. Why not? Any other course would be meaningless.

After this start, Dr. Wyatt launches into a series of assertions which are false. He claims that the psychiatric orientation of the book "is towards the common-sense psychiatry of Adolf Meyer." To do justice to CP's readers, let me say that the book is oriented toward a multi-disciplinary, behavioral-science form of social psychiatry such as we do not have commonly even today—and this has nothing to do with Meyer. I pointed out, in passing, certain connections between Meyer's eclectic be-

havioral approach and Dewey's as being the water under the bridge that led to social psychiatry. The index might disabuse the reader: for less than 20 references to Meyer, there are 45 to Freud and Freudian theory, not to mention Sullivan, Fromm-Reichmann, Rado, Fromm, Ferenczi, and many others. In the latter list one should include several persons quoted or referred to who contributed heavily to ego psychology (Hartman, Kris, Rapaport), despite the reviewer's claim of my "omitting consideration of Ego Psychology." An entire section of my book is much devoted to Ego Psychology, and the reader can settle the question by reference to pages 168-194.

After such glaring errors in half a paragraph, one would expect fewer Alice-in-Wonderland distortions and some mirroring of realities. But still more astonishing, the paragraph continues with the general claim that there is more emphasis on epidemiology and its methods than on etiology and "its baffling parameters," more on "severe derangement" than on common neurotic problems, and more on culture and psychopathology per se than on the enormous psychological difficulties of a highly urbanized, industrialized mass-society today. Each one of these three assertions is wrong. In the book, every discussion of epidemiology is linked with etiological considerations. After a survey of what is known on both scores for all leading world areas,

# Contemporary Psychology

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*Edited by*

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